This paper traces the history of 27 minority recruitment programs in scholastic journalism (targeted at high school students) from a national perspective. Based on the idea that a review of the history of any effort has value, the paper discusses the beginning stages of these efforts, how they developed, and what individuals and groups have taken leadership roles. Building cultural bridges to increase understanding between minorities and non-minorities is an important priority for the news media and journalism educators at all levels. The paper outlines contributions made by media foundations, influential newspapers and newspaper groups, journalists, journalism organizations, and universities. The paper also discusses the four types of minority recruiting programs developed for high school students, i.e.: workshops, scholarships, mentoring, and partnerships with businesses and universities. Fifty-five notes are included, and 43 references are attached. (RS)
WHEN IT ALL BEGAN:
JOURNALISM MINORITY RECRUITING & HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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WHEN IT ALL BEGAN:
JOURNALISM MINORITY RECRUITING & HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

It’s time to set the record straight. Recent scholastic journalism publications feature minority recruitment efforts directed at high school students. While this coverage is laudable, it is also problematic. If journalists write the “first draft of history,“1 it falls on their shoulders to be as accurate as possible. This doesn’t always happen. The recent coverage of minority recruitment efforts is a case in point.

Jack Kennedy named the 1990 Chicago journalism convention as the starting point for multiculturalism in high school journalism.2 In the December 1991 Iowa High School Press Association Newsletter, Kennedy said:

It’s pretty exciting to find yourself part of history being made, and I think that’s exactly what happened during the recent JEA/NSPA national convention in Chicago.... I think we will look back on this convention in a decade or so and say, “That’s when it all began.”

... JEA, along with a number of scholastic and professional journalism groups, has committed itself to a new dedication to multiculturalism. The group will be working hard to get more minority advisers involved in all phases of the organization, and will be actively supporting efforts to bring more minority students into high school journalism....

The multicultural newsroom has been a professional goal for a number of years now, but only recently have professional organizations realized that many of their future employees make career decisions in high school, not college. There is a growing

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2Kennedy is the Journalism Education Association (JEA) Curriculum Commission chair and the Iowa High School Press Association president.
movement toward beginning minority recruitment for journalism careers at a younger age, and this can only benefit scholastic journalism.

...I see JEA taking the leadership in this country in bringing more diversity to our newsrooms on all levels. ³

While Kennedy’s argument is a compelling one, his time frame is incomplete. The convention in Chicago was not “when it all began.” It was a very important step in an ongoing effort that dates back to the 1960s.

A similar inconsistency appears in an article in the Spring 1990 issue of Communication: Journalism Education Today, the official publication of the Journalism Education Association. Minority student involvement in American high school journalism programs is the focus of the entire issue. In an article establishing that focus, David L. Adams, contributing editor, says the efforts to increase minority enrollment in scholastic journalism date back to the 1974 publication of Captive Voices. ⁴

While we applaud Adams for editing the first C:JET issue devoted to this very important topic, we must point out that, like Jack Kennedy’s, his time frame is not complete. He neglects the minority recruitment efforts that began much earlier.

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM:

This paper traces the history of minority recruitment in scholastic journalism from a national perspective. It includes when the efforts began, how they developed, and what individuals and groups have taken leadership roles. The paper will outline contributions made by media foundations,

individual newspapers and newspaper groups, journalists, journalism organizations, and universities.

By recounting student, journalist, and educator involvement, a chronology of minority recruitment efforts evolves. A review of the history of any effort has value. It is important to know how things were done in the past, what problems once existed (and perhaps still exist) and how they were handled. This knowledge of what others have done before helps us to understand what it is possible to do.\(^5\)

In reconstructing the events of the past, we have talked to the people involved, examined the printed materials produced as the efforts unfolded, and read the commentary on these efforts. The primary or most important sources include the firsthand testimony given in interviews, and in newspaper and magazine articles.\(^6\) Secondary importance falls on the books, journal articles and other commentary based on primary sources.\(^7\)

The primary goal of all minority recruitment efforts has been the elimination of racism in mass communication.\(^8\) Racism is the theory that some races or groups of people are inherently superior to others. The meaning of the term "race" is socially constructed and usually based on physical characteristics. In our society, race is primarily defined by skin color. However, the term "racism" has also been used to describe discrimination against ethnic groups in general. Common languages, religious beliefs or other cultural characteristics define ethnic groups. In all cases, racism


\(^7\)Yodelis Smith, 310.

purports to justify discrimination based on one group's claim of superiority over another.

In practical terms, solutions to the problem of racism fall into three broad categories. In the first solution, minority groups organize, become militant and demand changes and threaten violence. In the second legislation is passed to end discrimination through programs of mandated civil rights and affirmative action. In the third solution, it is in the economic best interest of the dominant white culture to end discrimination against the nonwhite or "minority" groups. To avoid violence, most efforts in the mass media embrace the second and third solution. Early efforts in the 1960s and 1970s worked at achieving affirmative action goals. Most of the recent efforts in the mass media follow the third—economic—solution of combating racism.

Institutionalized racism has long provided the rationale for the media's negative portrayal of people of color. News coverage of minority communities has been minimal and what coverage there has been has focused on negative issues such as crime and poverty. This coverage perpetuates negative stereotypes that undermine the chances for successful competition for jobs and other factors of economic success. For instance, racist practices in the mass media have resulted in hiring personnel along racial lines. As a result, media personnel have long been almost exclusively white. To overcome this practice, minority recruitment efforts began.

The goal of minority recruitment is to build cultural bridges to increase understanding between minorities and non-minorities and to avoid either group stereotyping the other. In a multicultural environment, minority

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9Taylor, 80.
cultures become part of the larger group's culture and history. In doing so, minorities keep and value what is distinctive about their own cultures.¹⁰

The important questions about minorities in journalism that have confronted previous researchers are: what is the role of the news media in fostering racism? How can racism in the media be combated? And, how can the media recruit students who can provide the racial and ethnic diversity necessary to do so?

PREVIOUS RESEARCH:

The most dramatic examples of a violent reaction to racism were the 1967 riots in African-American communities across this country. On the national front, the 1960s marked a decade of racial tension and unrest. Following the racially motivated riots, President Lyndon B. Johnson established The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders. The Commission was charged with analyzing what happened and why, and discovering what could be done to prevent the situation from recurring. It appeared that our nation was moving toward two societies—one black, one white.

The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (informally called The Kerner Commission after the chair, then governor of Illinois, Otto Kerner) was appointed to determine the cause of these riots and other racial problems. The commission concluded that the problems were due, in part to racism in the news media.

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¹⁰Loren Ghiglione, then ASNE president, telephone conversation with author, June, 1991.
In defining, explaining, and reporting this broader, more complex and ultimately far more fundamental subject [race relations], the communication media, ironically, has failed to communicate....

The absence of Negro faces and activities from the media affects white audiences as well as Black. By failing to portray the Negro as a matter of routine and in the context of the total society, the news media have, we believe, contributed to the Black-White schism in this country....

The journalistic profession has been shockingly backward in seeking out, hiring, training and promoting Negroes....\(^{11}\)

The Commission concluded that recruiting and training minority journalists—starting at the high school level—was one way to combat racism:

Providing educational opportunities for the would-be Negro journalists is not enough. There will have to be changes in career outlooks for Negro students and their counselors back to the secondary school level. And these changes will come slowly unless there is a change in the reality of employment and advancements for Negroes in journalism.

The Commission recommended that the media establish a privately organized and funded Institute of Urban Communications to train and educate journalists in urban affairs. Other recommendations were that the media: recruit and train more black journalists, develop methods for improving police-press relations, review coverage of riots and racial issues, and support continuing research in the urban field.\(^{12}\)

The Commission found existing journalism training programs were inadequate and that a new way to recruit and train journalists had to be found. The commission also suggested that the institute be held in cooperation with universities and other institutions. The recommendation included a comprehensive range of courses, seminars and workshops for current journalists and recruitment programs aimed at minorities. Funding

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\(^{12}\)Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders, 387.
for the institute was to come from private foundations and, ultimately, from within the profession.

Leaders in the journalism community today agree with the commission's findings. For instance, Charles L. Overby, The Freedom Forum president, stated that, "The First Amendment is for everyone and should include all cultures and all viewpoints. That means that journalism must be an inclusive rather than an exclusive profession."

Orlando Taylor, dean of the Howard University School of Communications and chair of the Association of Black College of Journalism and Mass Communication Programs said, "Decisions relative to what is news and who are newsmakers, as well as perspectives on the news, must be determined by and reflective of America's culturally diverse peoples."13

Several attempts have been made to solve the problems defined by the Kerner Commission. However, despite the "best efforts" of minority journalists and their advocates in the mainstream media, the percentage of minorities in the nation's newsrooms still falls far short of reflecting the ethnic make-up of our society. Over half the nation's dailies have no African American, Hispanic American, Asian American or Native American journalists. According to U.S. Census figures, minorities represent about 23 percent of the national population, but less than eight percent of the nation's news media work force.14

It is also important to note that minority students are found in the high school journalism programs in the same proportion as their representation in the total school minority population across this nation.

13Taylor, 80.
Fully 24 percent of all students in the journalism programs studied by Jack Dvorak during the 1990-91 school year are from African American, Hispanic American, Asian American or Native American backgrounds. In spite of this high number, most efforts to solve the problems of under-representation of minority students in today’s journalism classrooms are aimed at the college or university student.

However, an article in the 1987 Summer/Autumn Journalism Quarterly, detailing research done at the University of Arizona, indicated that more minority students make career decisions before they reach the college campus. The study also found that there are large numbers of bright, motivated minority students who desire a challenging profession in which they can contribute to the general well-being of others. Recruitment, therefore, is more than just a “numbers game.” The first step is to interest potential journalists. The challenge is to make careers in the newspaper business compelling and attractive to minority high school students.

In the journalism “trade press” several articles in Editor and Publisher dealt directly with efforts to recruit in high schools. Neal E. Robbins, then administrator of the Roosevelt University journalism minority recruitment programs, argued that “too little faith is placed in the potentials of high schools—particularly school journalism for recruitment....The news media want students from high schools for minority advancement programs, but

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give little to high schools that would enable the schools to produce the kind of recruits they need."\textsuperscript{17}

\textbf{THIS RESEARCH PROJECT:}

As stated earlier, this paper is limited to minority recruitment programs targeted at high school students. The authors acknowledge that many other programs aimed at college and university students and journalism professionals were occurring at the same time. These other programs are mentioned when they have a direct impact on programs targeted at high school students and teachers. Our intent is not to minimize other contributions. For the sake of length and focus our discussion is limited to high school programs and the scholastic journalism components of larger programs.

For clarity, we have set each program off with a bold, italic title, followed by the date that the program began. When necessary, transition sentences or paragraphs between the programs are included. For easy identification, these sentences or paragraphs are set in Italic type. One such paragraph follows directly after this one.

\textbf{THE PROGRAMS:}

\textit{Several media foundations picked up the challenge issued by the Kerner Commission. One media foundation, The Dow Jones Newspaper Fund's activities predated the Kerner Commission. The Dow Jones Newspaper Fund and The Gannett Foundation (now called The Freedom Forum) have lead minority recruitment efforts over the last three decades.}

\textsuperscript{17}Neal E. Robbins, "Neglect of scholastic journalism slowing minority recruitment," \textit{Editor and Publisher} (March 4, 1989): 60-61.
The Dow Jones Newspaper Fund (1959)

The earliest media foundation program for minority recruitment dates back to 1959, when The Dow Jones Newspaper Fund began holding workshops for high school journalism teachers. By the mid 1960s, the Fund was focusing its workshops in historically black schools. Teachers from these schools indicated that their high school publications were either nonexistent, of poor quality, or did not address the problems that their students faced each day.18

The first Dow Jones Fund program that was designed specifically for black teachers at segregated southern schools was held in 1964 at Savannah (GA) State College. More than 20 high school and college teachers from throughout the South attended this workshop for the five years it was held. Although directed at high school teachers, this workshop was the first media sponsored effort to recruit high school students. For the first time students were asked to consider news careers outside black newspapers according to Paul Swensson, executive director of the Fund from 1961-68.19

At the same time that the Kerner Commission was meeting in 1967, The Dow Jones Newspaper Fund was planning its first summer journalism workshop for minority high school students. The first workshop was held in the summer of 1968 for 21 students in Washington D.C. Held at American University, it received financial support from the Washington Post, the Washington Star and Theta Sigma Phi (now Women in Communications, Incorporated). By 1969, the Washington D.C. workshop was joined by three others. The program has continued to expand to include 31 workshops in 20

states in the summer of 1990. All Newspaper Fund workshops are free of charge to students. More than 5,000 students have passed through the program since 1968.\textsuperscript{20}

Since 1976 the Newspaper Fund has sponsored the Urban Writing Competition for participants in the High School Journalism Workshops for Minorities. College scholarships are awarded to students who submit the best clippings published in workshop newspapers.

In 1989, the Newspaper Fund began targeting teachers in schools with minority student populations of at least 20 percent for teacher fellowships. These Newspaper Fund teacher scholarships were not available in 1992.\textsuperscript{21}

The Dow Jones Newspaper Fund also prints a national directory of high school journalism workshops for minority students that includes programs sponsored by newspapers, foundations, professional organizations and colleges. The 1991 national directory listed 68 programs in 29 states.

\textit{The Freedom Forum [Gannett Foundation] (1960s)}

Beginning in the 1960s, The Gannett Foundation (now The Freedom Forum) made a commitment to minority journalism by funding minority journalism grants. It has given a total of $10 million in these grants since that time.\textsuperscript{22}

\textsuperscript{20}In addition to The Dow Jones Newspaper Fund, The Knight Foundation provides funding for a significant number of minority workshops.

\textsuperscript{21}Tom Engleman, Executive Director of the Dow Jones Newspaper Fund in a letter to author dated February 25, 1992. No explanation was given as to why the fellowships were not to be awarded.

\textsuperscript{22}Felix Gutierrez, telephone interview by author July 1991.
The Freedom Forum has long been a supporter of journalism education by awarding journalism grants in that area and in the categories of research, scholarship, professionalism and minorities.23

Freedom Forum funds have backed several of the programs described in this paper. For instance, they have been major contributors to Youth Communication, the minority journalist organizations, numerous university-based programs, and have been actively involved in the Task Force on Minorities in the Newspaper Business. They are currently sponsoring a year-long initiative to assess and report on the state of scholastic and youth journalism in the United States. According to Alice Bonner, Director of Journalism Education, it will "culminate in the first major report on this important subject since the publication of 'Captive Voices' in 1974."24

In October of 1990, the Forum changed funding priorities. The National/International Freedom Fund was established to promote the foundation's primary concern of "fostering First Amendment freedoms in the USA and in selected areas around the world." Increasing minority participation in journalism continues to be listed among The Freedom Forum's priorities. The Forum has funded high school journalism programs that are operated by journalism organizations, but does not fund programs at individual high schools.25

Like the media foundations, many universities responded to the challenges brought forth by the Kerner Commission. These are the earliest efforts. Even

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though the first workshop is directed at professional journalists, it is included in our timeline because the IJE served as the model for several other programs including many high school programs.

The Institute for Journalism Education (1968)

During the riots in the 1960s, black urban residents turned against white reporters who were covering the riots. This brought home to media outlets the lesson that a racially mixed news staff was essential for covering urban issues. To train minority journalists, the Institute for Journalism Education (IJE) first organized at Columbia University in 1968.

The IJE Workshop was held during the summer for minority participants who were college graduates with non-journalism degrees. The program was three months of training where journalists worked an average of 18 hours a day, seven days a week covering the news and publishing a newspaper. The program's directors said the intense concentration equaled 14 months of class time in a typical graduate school of journalism. Students were guaranteed jobs after they graduated. Newspaper editors agreed to hire participants on the strength of the program's reputation for turning out the best trained beginners in the newspaper business.

When the IJE was cancelled in 1974 by Columbia and The Ford Foundation, the program found a new home at the University of California at Berkeley School of Journalism in 1976. Today IJE has trained and placed more minority newspaper professionals than any other institution in America.26

The Urban Journalism Seminar - The University of Iowa (1969)

Recognizing a need for similar intensive journalism training at the high school level in the state of Iowa, a high school minority workshop was established at the University of Iowa by Sharon Murphy, then a graduate student, and Bill Zima, a journalism professor. The Iowa Urban Journalism Seminar was sponsored by Iowa newspapers and open to minority students from Des Moines, Waterloo, Cedar Rapids, Davenport and Burlington.

This workshop was one of five high school minority workshops held that year. The other four were the Dow Jones-sponsored workshops held at Plainfield (NJ) High School, American University, Ohio University and the University of Michigan.

The two-week workshop was held in 1969 and 1970. The workshop was cancelled after two years because staffers were unable to recruit sufficient minority students from the state of Iowa. Minority students continued to participate in the University of Iowa workshops, but were mainstreamed into the regular summer workshop program that had been held each year since 1952.27

The Urban Journalism Workshop—The University of Missouri (1971)

The longest continuous high school minority workshop was the Urban Journalism Workshop that began in 1971 at the University of Missouri. Sponsored by The Dow Jones Newspaper Fund and established by Dr. Robert Knight, it was modeled after the IJE.

The workshop has been held every summer for 11 days for the past 25 years. Knight changed the name to AHANA Journalism Workshop to

27Files of miscellaneous letters, class lists and press releases from 1967-69 from Bill Zima, one of the workshop organizers.
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represent the ethnic mix of African-American, Hispanic-American, Asian-American and Native-American students. He also fostered a campaign to encourage others to use this acronym instead of the word "minority."  

The media foundations and universities were joined by practicing journalists. Instead of adopting yet another version of a high school urban journalism workshop model, the RFK Memorial decided to study the whole field of high school journalism.

**The RFK Memorial & The Commission of Inquiry into High School Journalism - Captive Voices (1974)**

The RFK Memorial was founded by reporters who traveled with Robert F. Kennedy during his fatal 1968 campaign. Beginning that year, The Robert F. Kennedy Memorial established The RFK Journalism Awards program that included a category for high school journalists. Dick Boone, executive director of The RFK Memorial, was concerned about the quality of high school journalism. He wondered why so many of the entries submitted from high school students from across this country was not of first quality. Consequently, a commission of inquiry was established in 1973 to study high school journalism.  

Charged with examining the nature, problems, and possibilities of journalism in the high school context, the Commission of Inquiry into High School Journalism began in February 1973 and continued for fifteen months. Chaired by Franklin Patterson, its members included high school students,

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29 Craig Trygstad in telephone interview with the author about RFK Memorial involvement, July, 1991.
high school teachers (Sr. Ann Christine Heintz and Dorothy McPhillips), professional journalists, those involved in teacher training programs, lawyers, educational administrators, and community organizers. The RFK Memorial and several other organizations provided funds of $65,000.

While the Commission looked at high school journalism in general, one principal area of inquiry was minority participation—the degree to which minority youth found access to the high school journalism available to them. The Commission examined the causes for limited minority access and made practical suggestions for enlarging educational opportunities for minority youth.

The Commission recommended full participation of minority youth in high school journalism. Teachers and students both needed to understand the reasons for mirroring the racial, cultural, ethnic and economic diversity of their communities in the content of their publications. Commission members recommended the active recruitment of minorities for in-school media programs and the use of community organizations to recruit minorities for both in and out of school media programs.

It also recommended that community organizations emphasize development of community-based youth media enterprises mirroring special minority concerns. They recommended that summer journalism programs and media projects should be created to recruit and give scholastic funding to minorities. Another recommendation was that schools should sponsor alternative media for students who are kept out of media classes because of academic tracking.30

Working journalists were also organizing for diversity in other ways. The first minority journalist organization included working with high schools to identify potential journalists among its organizational goals.

**National Association of Black Journalists (1975)**

In 1975, 50 journalists met in Washington, D.C. and founded an organization to address the professional needs of black journalists. On December 12 of that year, The National Association of Black Journalists, the largest media organization of people of color was created. NABJ established its first national office September 15, 1986, in Reston VA.

With over 1,900 members, NABJ works to strengthen ties among black journalists and to become an exemplary group of professionals that honors excellence and outstanding achievement by black journalists. It also seeks to expand job opportunities for black journalists and assist in recruiting activities and to work with high schools to identify potential black journalists. NABJ chapters also sponsor minority journalism workshops for high school students.31

An alternative to the minority workshop model for student recruitment came out of the Captive Voices Commission. Community-based youth media enterprises mirroring special minority concerns were developed.

**Youth Communication (1977)**

One of the two high school journalism teachers who served on the Captive Voices Commission, Sr. Ann Christine Heintz, co-founded Youth Communication.

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Communication with Craig Trygstad. He had worked with The RFK Memorial on programs for high school journalists. When additional RFK Memorial funding was not available, Trygstad and Sr. Ann Christine, who had been teaching in Chicago, started Youth Communication.32

Founded in Chicago in 1977, Youth Communication began as a citywide, youth-written newspaper that quickly became the fourth largest circulation newspaper in the city. Its aim was to give young people a credible voice in the public discussions of the issues and problems facing youth in a fast changing society.


Youth Communication sponsors a nationwide mentoring program that pairs professional journalists with students interested in following in their footsteps. They also sponsor Youth News Service, an Associated Press-like wire that links youth newspapers across North America. Since 1985, Youth Communication has brought teenage journalism students to a one week summer workshop in Washington D.C. where they are trained as local correspondents and bureau chiefs for Youth News Service.33

32Craig Trygstad in telephone interview with the author June, 1991.
33"Youth Communication...tomorrow's journalists today," brochure published by Youth Communication, undated.
The St. Louis Minority Journalism Workshop (1977)

The first journalism workshop established and run by minority journalists for minority high school students was based on the Urban Journalism Workshop model developed by Robert Knight at the University of Missouri.34

George E. Curry, founding director of Greater St. Louis Association of Black Journalists, saw a need for journalism workshops that catered specifically to minority youth. Under his direction the first minority journalism workshop was established in 1977. The St. Louis Minority Journalism Workshop, sponsored by the Greater St. Louis Association of Black Journalists has been duplicated in Cleveland, Kansas City, Memphis, Pittsburgh, Washington D.C., New York, Chicago and Dallas.35

Two milestones in the minority recruitment efforts were: 1) the restatement of the need for pre-college programs to attract youth to media studies that came out of the Kerner Plus 10 Conference and 2) the American Society of Newspaper Editors' pledge to employ editors and reporters in numbers reflecting the nation's racial make-up by the year 2000, a goal of 23 percent minority participation. Both served to spur on minority recruitment efforts.

Kerner plus 10: Conference on Minorities and the Media (1977)

In 1977 the Kerner plus 10: Conference on Minorities and the Media convened April 22 at The University of Michigan at Ann Arbor. The purpose

34George E. Curry's speech when accepting the AEJMC Minority Recruitment Award during the 1989 convention in Washington, D.C.
of the conference was to research how far the news organizations had come in bridging the communications gap between the media and minorities.

The conference made the following three recommendations for high school students:

1. Starting pre-college summer media and study skills workshops for college-bound youth whose skills are not up to par.

2. Expanding efforts to attract youth to media studies through high school summer journalism workshops and journalist on-campus programs.

3. Expanding student awareness of and knowledge about jobs in communications through career conferences, career counseling, and classroom discussion.36

The American Society of Newspaper Editors Goal (1978)

With the number of minority journalists still lagging behind the national minority population in 1978, the American Society of Newspaper Editors adopted a resolution pledging to turn the statistics around. The Society pledged to employ editors and reporters in numbers reflecting the nation's racial make-up by the year 2000, a goal of 23 percent minority participation. By 1991, minority participation had reached the level of 8 percent.37

During the 1980s several "mainstreaming" programs developed. While targeting minority students, these programs also included non-minority students. Mainstreaming programs operate under the theory that separating


minority students from other students is problematic. These programs argue that students learning together mirror the journalism profession where students will work together.

The Poynter Institute (1981)

Working to provide journalistic writing opportunities at the high school level, the Poynter Institute initiated its first Writers Camp in 1981. The program takes 24 talented high school students—half of whom are minorities—through five weeks of intense drilling in journalism skills. Students are selected based on recommendations and language skills, curiosity and interest in the world around them. Students can return to the institute each year until they are ready for college. The Institute also helps to arrange for college scholarships for those who show special promise and will study journalism.

Because the Poynter Institute can only work with two dozen writers each year, it has offered its assistance to help set up similar high school writing programs with an emphasis on minority recruitment. The Poynter Institute will consult over the phone, help identify a teacher in the community to run the program, provide information about curriculum materials, help contact teachers who have experience with the program and provide an opportunity for visits to their summer program for a first hand look.38

The later half of the decade of the 1980s was marked by increased cooperation between the various media outlets, professional organizations, media

foundations and educational institutions. These programs looked at the ASNE 23 percent minority participation goal and tried to find various ways of reaching that goal. Recruiting and training programs aimed at minority high school students form an important component of each of these programs.

ANPA Foundation Minority Affairs Office & The Task Force on Minorities in the Newspaper Business (1985)

In 1985, the minority journalists' organizations were concerned about the rate of progress toward the American Society of Newspaper Editors' goal of 23 percent minority participation in the newspaper industry by the year 2000. They approached the American Newspaper Publishers Association for assistance in reaching the newspaper industry goal. The Task Force on Minorities in the Newspaper Business was formed and administered by the ANPA Foundation Minority Affairs office.


Additional funding for the Task Force was provided by The Associated Press; the Chicago Tribune Fund; Cox Newspapers; Dow Jones; Gannett; Knight-Ridder; The New York Times; Scripps Howard; St. Petersburg Times; Times Mirror Company; Los Angeles Times; and The Washington Post.
As a result of a goal set at the February 1988 meeting, the Task Force produced a booklet presenting the relationship of minorities to newspapers, *Cornerstone for Growth*. The Task Force found that although increasing numbers of minorities are graduating from college and entering professions, there are fewer young people of color in the workforce overall. To offset declines in the new labor force numbers, the task force concluded that recruitment must begin in high school.39

**NABJ and NAHJ Joint Program (1986)**

In 1986 the NABJ board met with the National Association of Hispanic Journalists in Philadelphia and agreed to a joint program to monitor hiring and promoting of minority journalists. They also agreed to encourage junior high and high school students to seek careers in journalism and to assist minority journalists in achieving management positions.40

**Detroit Free Press Journalism Program (1986)**

The Detroit *Free Press* journalism program began in 1986. Today each of the 20 Detroit high schools publishes a page in The Detroit *Free Press*. Four newspapers are printed each week. Once a week, 26,000 copies of the issue of the *Free Press* that contains the student newspapers are distributed free to all the high schools. The printing of the newspaper is paid for by an advertiser. There is no charge to the Detroit public schools. The project has been ongoing for seven years.

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Free Press personnel conduct training workshops for the students and serve as mentors for the high schools. Other facets of the program are: the Free Press minority journalism scholarships, the mentor for a day shadowing program, the summer jobs program and an apprenticeship program.41

Capital Area Youth Journalism Exchange - Howard University (1987)

Representatives from seven media and professional organizations located in the Washington D.C. metropolitan area met at Howard University to share information about programs they offered for high school students. Three newspapers, two school districts and nine media organizations now belong to the Capital Area Youth Journalism Exchange founded during that meeting.

The goal of the group is to identify students at the junior and senior high school levels and place them in a sequence of activities. These activities will help them improve writing and thinking skills as well as career decision-making and socialization skills.

The plan includes junior high speakers and mentors for journalism classes. Early high school-age students attend workshops and conferences sponsored by local media groups and universities. Later students attend the same workshops and conferences and participate in one additional workshop and attend a special media day. High school seniors work one-on-one with a mentor, apply for various college scholarships and participate in state, regional and national writing competitions. The final facet of this program includes college-level programs aimed at the same students.

By working together, programs in the Washington D.C. area cooperate and do not compete in creating greater opportunities for minority high school students by joining together with the many area resources already working on this important goal.42


This colorful guide to all facets of the newspaper industry targets recruiting high school students. It includes information about writing and editing jobs and well as jobs for artists, photographers, salespersons, advertising specialists, marketers, business managers, accountants, distributors, computer experts, personnel specialists and production coordinators. Support positions such as secretaries, maintenance personnel, drivers and telephone operators are included as well. Opportunities for minorities and women are highlighted in this recruiting tool.43

*Reaching Out to Minority Students Workshop - The University of Iowa (1989)*

While most of these programs were targeted at high school students, a few programs looked in yet another direction—toward the high school teacher and publication adviser. In 1989 The University of Iowa established the "Reaching Out to Minority Students" workshop aimed at high school journalism teachers. The program does not work with professionals from the world outside the high school or short-term summer workshops for high school students located at colleges and universities. This approach targeted

working with high school journalism teachers who are in the classroom with high school students virtually every school day.  

Jack Dvorak's recent study on high school journalism advisers found that only 4.3 percent of high school journalism teachers and advisers come from African American, Hispanic American, Asian American or Native American backgrounds. This compares with 13.1 percent of all secondary school teachers from these traditional minority groups. These figures indicate that efforts in recruiting minority teachers and advisers and training non-minority educators to work in classrooms with a high minority population must be increased. More programs like the one at The University of Iowa should help to find a solution to this problem.

Foellinger Foundation Minority Scholarships - Indiana University (1989)

In part, because the number of African-American students at Indiana University was declining, the University initiated an innovative scholarship program. These journalism scholarships include two full tuition scholarships for students to attend the university and six scholarships for the two-week summer journalism institute. Each university scholarship is worth $7,000 per year and each summer grant is worth $350.

During this period, other colleges and universities increased the amount of scholarship funds for minority students for summer workshops and college scholarships for promising high school students.

44Mary Arnold, Reaching out to minority Students, Communication: Journalism Education Today 23: 3(1990), 12.
The Dayton Daily News project (1989)

Ready to put some of its conclusions into action, the Task Force on Minorities in the Newspaper Business asked the Dayton Daily News to run a pilot program as a minority student newspaper project. In the fall 1989, the Dayton Daily News began a joint newspaper-school effort that included sending professional journalists to Dunbar High School. The News also began publishing the school newspaper in its “Neighbors” section. The purpose of the project was to develop interest and involve young minorities in the newspaper.47

As the 1990s begin, many groups are working on minority recruitment projects. One problem is that many of the groups are working without the knowledge of each other. Some efforts, such as the Capital Area Youth Journalism Exchange are cooperative and seek to avoid duplication. What remains is for one group to keep track of the efforts on a national scale. This is where the JEA effort discussed by Jack Kennedy in the opening page of this paper fits in.

Minorities in Journalism Issue of C:JET (1990)

The Spring issue of Communication: Journalism Education Today, the official publication of the Journalism Education Association, was devoted to minority student involvement in American high school journalism programs. Edited by Dr. David L. Adams, it included articles about The Dow Jones Newspaper Fund’s contributions and mentor programs from the

perspective of the reporter/mentor and the high school student. Also appearing were articles about minority workshops, scholarships, and innovative programs directed at high school students. A resource directory for high school journalism teachers and advisers was also included.48

**JEA Multicultural Committee (1990)**

The JEA Multicultural Committee was organized during the board meeting of the Fall JEA/NSPA Convention in November in Indianapolis. Sherry Haklik of North Plainfield, NJ, and Steve O'Donoghue of Oakland, CA, were named co-chairs. The committee was formed to study ways to increase minority student participation in high school journalism and to find ways to increase participation of minority teachers and media professions in JEA activities and projects.49 Among the JEA goals for 91-93 is to "continue to provide leadership in creating an awareness of the problem of low minority involvement in high school journalism programs through this multicultural committee."50

In November, the Multicultural Committee called a meeting of the heads of many of the minority recruitment programs together to discuss forming a clearinghouse for information on minority programs directed at high school students and teacher. A collaborative effort to revitalize the journalism programs of inner city schools was also discussed.

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50"Journalism Education Association: What We Stand For...," informational brochure published by JEA, Kansas State University, 1991.
San Francisco State University Center for the Integration and Improvement of Journalism (1990)

In January of 1990 at San Francisco State University, The Center for Integration and Improvement of Journalism was created to develop a series of model programs to bring ethnic diversity to the American news media and to promote improved coverage of America’s multicultural society. The center is supported by grants from The Freedom Forum, Knight Foundation and Reporter Publishing company.

Current projects include mentoring and writing coach programs, career planning services, high school journalism fair and competition, high school summer journalism workshops, youth outreach with local high schools and community groups and a network of professional journalist associations and industry-level organizations.51


A multicultural guide to recruiting, training, and retaining students for high school journalism was published in May 1992 at the University of Iowa. Materials for the guide were collected from the “Reaching Out to Minority Students Workshop” held the previous three summers at the university and a symposium held in October 1991.

This guide is intended for use by high school teachers rather than the high school students targeted by most programs. Funded by a grant from The Freedom Forum, the guide is intended to help secondary school teachers create opportunities for greater minority involvement in scholastic

51“Scoop! Achieving Diversity in America’s Newsrooms,” informational brochure published by Center of Integration and Improvement of Journalism, San Francisco State University, 1991.
journalism and stress plurality in the classroom. It's editors hope it will encourage promising minority journalists to pursue careers in the field.\textsuperscript{52}

\textit{Roosevelt University Multicultural Journalism Center (1991)}

To help reduce the shortage of minority journalists in the nation's newsrooms the Multicultural Journalism Center was organized at Roosevelt University in Chicago in 1991. The center is funded by the Chicago Tribune Charities and other news media foundations. Their programs for high school students included career counseling, mentors, assistance in finding scholarships, internships and summer jobs. The program matches journalists with local high schools to act as speakers, mentors, and to help provide publishing opportunities. The center also administers an association for high school and junior high school journalism teachers.

The goal of this group is to improve high school journalism in Chicago by serving as a forum for discussion and place for teacher to work for the betterment of school journalism and newspaper programs. The center also holds workshops for Chicago area junior high and high school students.\textsuperscript{53}

\textbf{DISCUSSION:}

Since efforts began in the late 1960s, minority recruitment has been reactive in nature. In the 60s, the news media didn't concern themselves with the lack of minority reporters to cover urban issues until the cities were burning. In 1968, the Kerner Commission pointed an accusatory finger at the news media blaming the media for escalating the rioting in African-

\begin{footnotesize}
\footnote{\textsuperscript{52}Laura Behrens, "Grant to help boost minority presence in American newsrooms," news release from The University of Iowa, 13 May 1991.}
\footnote{\textsuperscript{53}"Multicultural Journalism Center," informational brochure published by Multicultural Journalism Center, Roosevelt University, 1991.}
\end{footnotesize}
American neighborhoods. Then—and only then—did the media concern themselves about the dearth of minority journalists.

Shortly after the report of the Commission was issued, the news media, foundations, organizations and the educational institutions that train future journalists reacted. They set about implementing the Commission's recommendations that non-minority journalists be taught about the conditions in the inner city and that minority journalists be recruited and trained.

Historically, newspapers have hired reporters who best conformed to existing professional norms. The average journalist was a college educated, white, middle-class male. As a result of the Kerner Commission report, efforts were first directed at recruiting ethnic minorities for newspaper newsrooms. The special programs that developed were different from those used to train white reporters and often positioned outside the academic mainstream.

These special programs were conceived to recruit and train minority journalists. In the process, they often restricted those journalists from access to other reporters-in-training by separating them from the rest of the student population. The very programs that were organized and established to help recruit minority journalists, served to isolate them further.

Several recruiting and training models were developed. These early programs were frequently awkward and uncertain because newsmedia and journalism educators were unsure of how to operate in a potentially explosive environment. As programs for professional journalists developed, several similar programs for high school students evolved as well. These programs include: workshops, scholarships, mentoring, and partnerships with businesses and universities.
Workshops

The first program was the workshop or short course based on the IJE, the summer-long intensive workshop to train minority college graduates with non-journalism degrees. The three months of training were intended to equal 14 months of class time in a typical graduate school of journalism.

Efforts directed at the high school followed a similar pattern—with some major changes. Unlike the programs for college graduates, the number of weeks for the workshop was not 12 but two—or, at most, three—weeks. The educational goals were set considerably lower as well. Rather than intensive academic programs, the focus was on getting students to show up for class, to stay in school, learn basic skills, and, eventually, to go to college.

Three variations of the workshop program developed. The most prevalent one was the “minorities only” workshop where minority high school students were recruited and brought to a university campus or newspaper newsroom to learn basic journalism and work skills. Like the IJE program for training professional journalists, minority high school students were isolated from their non-minority peers.

The second variation was the “mainstreaming” or “melting pot” workshop. This variation was based on the theory that assimilation or cultural absorption of minority groups into the major or prevailing cultural body is the best way for those “outsiders” to survive and thrive. By giving up the distinctive aspects of their own culture—language, food, dress, etc.—and taking on those of the prevailing culture, outsiders became insiders. Thus, minority students were able to work along side non-minority students in the workshop setting by “acting white.”

The third variation was the “multicultural” workshop where all students, minority and non-minority are in the same workshop. This is
different from the melting pot workshop because students are not expected to
give up their own culture and are encouraged to share it with others in the
workshop. In multicultural workshops, cultural diversity is recognized,
explored and valued.

Supporters of all three variations abound. Those who favor
"minorities only" workshops say that minority students need peer support.
They argue that students learn best from people who share the same culture.
Under this variation, minority role models and mentors provide most of the
training and support. Those who oppose this type of workshop argue that it
creates a separate but less-than-equal group with no access to power. Also, by
keeping non-minority students out, such workshops are, by very nature,
exclusive.

Conservative theorists posit the "melting pot" theory that students
must blend in and accept the status quo of the dominant white culture. They
argue that minorities must accept the reality that the "white" culture is the
culture of those who are in power. To tap into the power structure, minority
members must learn and take on that culture. Those who oppose this
argument argue that such a position is elitist and that minority students can
never really blend in to the dominant culture. They can act white but they
cannot be white.

The multicultural format helps students learn about getting along in
an integrated environment. Multicultural education seeks to provide
students with educational alternatives and, at the same time, reduce cultural
encapsulation. Encapsulation is the tendency to view the world from only
one perspective. Perhaps the strongest argument for multicultural workshops
is that it is inclusive and enables minority students to learn, interact and
work in an environment that affirms the validity of cultural diversity.
This variation does not neglect the power structure and decision making apparatus within high school journalism programs. Most high school programs are in schools with multicultural populations. Students from the same school who attend the same workshop are often encouraged to develop a plan for the publication for the next year. This plan may include selecting staff, establishing policies and delegating responsibilities. Minority students who do not attend workshops with other students from their home schools may be left out of this planning. They may find that many of their ideas or suggestions are set aside in favor of the group work done at another workshop.

**Scholarships**

The second major high school recruiting effort has been through scholarship programs. These have been aimed at high school students' participation in summer workshops and, eventually, attending college. Scholarships for minority students to attend summer workshops have been available for decades. In the past few years, scholarships for high school teachers who teach in schools with a high minority population have also been available. With scholarships the direct benefit to students is obvious. The long-term impact these scholarships have on students' career choices and college plans has not been documented. A follow-up study on the effect of giving scholarships to the teachers of minority students is needed as well.

**Mentors**

Mentoring, the third program, has also been an important facet of minority recruitment efforts. As was true with workshops, different
variations have evolved. The first is the one-on-one mentor where a professional journalist (usually a newspaper reporter) works closely with one minority student—usually in the mentor's office. The mentor takes an ongoing interest in one student and a close, personal bond is developed.

In the second mentoring variation, one journalist is matched up with the whole staff of one publication. The mentor is usually a newspaper reporter who goes to a high school to help all the staff members produce a publication. These mentors often continue with the same publication for several years.

There are arguments for and against both variations of mentoring. The one-on-one variation works well when the "match" is a good one. Independent, confident students who are not intimidated by going to a newspaper office or working one-on-one with a skilled professional thrive in this program. It is less suitable for students who are unsure of their goals or abilities.

Less personal and, therefore, often less intimidating is the staff mentor. Since this form of mentoring often occurs on the students' own turf, students are in a more familiar and comfortable working environment. Again, this has its disadvantages. With a shared mentor, there is less accountability and students may not form the close, personal bond that is essential for successful mentoring.

Partnerships

The fourth program is a relatively recent educational development—the "partnership" approach in which a private business or industry forms a working liaison with a school. Such partnerships are designed to inform students about all aspects of the business world and to encourage students to
get the education they need to work for such businesses. Creating a more informed, educated workforce is the goal of business who form such partnerships with schools. An advantage to working with the schools, is that the media outlets such as newspapers can form open and direct links with the natural recruiting points in the school systems: the school newspaper and journalism programs. Business partners often provide funding, scholarships, speakers, and, occasionally mentors for their partner schools.

In many cases the partnership is a three-sided. A college or university works with the school and business by assisting with education and training. College scholarships are often awarded at the educational institution that serves as a partner. The college or university benefits by increasing the number of students served and by having a close, on-going relationship with a business or industry.

The Detroit Free Press has a program that incorporates all four: workshops, mentoring, scholarships and a school/business partnership. They hold training workshops and provide mentors and scholarships. Their staffers say that the program is in the newspaper’s own best, selfish interest. The Free Press was having a difficult time recruiting reporters who knew the inner city and the paper was not attracting younger readers. Besides training potential future staffers, the Free Press was able to expand coverage because of their direct contact with inner city youth. The program has helped the Free Press to be more reflective of the interests of young people.

These recruiting programs evolved as reactions to the Kerner Commission report. Because of the reactive nature, most of the efforts have a

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"shoot from the hip" or a "scatter gun" approach. This theory operates on the notion that if you try everything, something ought to work. In the newsroom, these efforts have had limited success. The minority population has increased from two percent to almost eight percent—although still a long way from the ASNE goal of 23 percent racial and ethnic parity in the newsroom by the year 2000.

The success or failure of minority recruitment programs for high school programs has not been documented. The only evidence that exists is anecdotal and very limited. Future research is needed to determine which models have been most effective and to suggest where future efforts should be made. A systematic, organized approach would be a more effective and successful way to recruit high school aged minority students for journalism.

CONCLUSION:

Building cultural bridges to increase understanding between minorities and non-minorities is an important priority for the news media and journalism educators at all levels. The recent spate of journalism minority recruitment activities directed at high school students is, indeed, rewarding to those who have been working in this area for the last three decades. However, without any systematic record keeping, the groundwork done by earlier programs can be overlooked. Much time and all-too-scarce resources can be lost in efforts that duplicate those that have come before. A record of the successes and failures of the past can guide future efforts. Such a record should be as historically accurate as possible.

Therein lies the danger in writing a paper of this sort. In trying to correct the record, we may have perpetuated some false statements and, inadvertently, added others. We are neither admitting to shoddy scholarship
nor saying that we purposely omitted information. However, it is almost inevitable that we have done so. We leave it to the next round of scholarship to further set the record straight.

This issue is too important for those who do research to dissipate precious time and energy in quibbling over who did what first. However, whenever possible, it is important that those who do research on and write about minority recruitment efforts endeavor to keep the record as accurate as possible.
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